Chapter 2

The emergence of the spatial sciences as a new and integrative field

This chapter traces the intellectual origins and current focus of work in the spatial sciences today; the varying contributions made by theory, practice, and technology; and the flourishing academic, government, business, and not-for-profit communities that have sprung up around the spatial sciences during the past 20 years.

This is a challenging task considering that more than 50 years have passed since Roger Tomlinson and colleagues launched the Canada Geographic Information System (CGIS). Students today can earn degrees in the spatial sciences (or some variant, such as geodesign, geographic information science, spatial data science, spatial informatics, or spatial information science), and the accompanying geospatial technologies contribute billions of dollars of value through their support of a large and varied set of applications that span the public, private, and not-for-profit sectors. Table 2.1 lists the 59 special-interest groups represented at the 2023 Esri User Conference, and a series of reports published during the past 12 years has used a variety of methods and data to quantify the economic value of the geospatial sector (Boston Consulting Group 2012; Oxera 2013; National Geospatial Advisory Committee 2016; AlphaBeta 2016; Open Data Institute 2018; World Geospatial Industry Council 2019; Walter 2020; Geospatial World 2022a, 2022b, 2023a, 2023b; Geospatial Commission 2023).

2.1. The formation and elaboration of the spatial sciences

The intellectual underpinnings and focus of the spatial sciences today rely on two complementary threads. The first focuses on the representation, measurement, and manipulation of geospatial information and the second on the significance and meaning of place for the functioning of Earth and human well-being.

The first thread took shape quickly following the establishment of the National Center for Geographic Information and Analysis (NCGIA) in 1988 after receiving a \$5 million grant from the National Science Foundation. The center, hosted by the University of California, Santa Barbara, the State University of New York at Buffalo, and the University of Maine, made important and enduring contributions to education and research. The education contributions included the development of the NCGIA Core Curriculum in GIS, a 1,000-page document with three volumes titled "Introduction to GIS," "Technical Issues in GIS," and "Application Issues in GIS" (Kemp and Goodchild 1991, 1992). The research contributions

Table 2.1. Special-interest groups represented at the 2023 Esri User Conference

focused on 19 research initiatives, which started and ended with specialist meetings where interdisciplinary teams discussed pressing research issues. The list of titles reproduced in table 2.2 shows how most of this research focused on the representation, measurement, and manipulation of geospatial information and, to a lesser extent, the social and legal implications of these activities. This list also prefaces the distinction between the spatial information tradition, which stressed large inventories and databases and led to today's geoportals (Samet 1989; Roumelis et al. 2017), and the spatial analysis tradition, which focused on knowledge discovery using rapidly evolving suites of analysis and modeling methods. L. Anselin (1988, 1994), A. Getis and J. K. Ord (1992), Ord and Getis (1996), and C. Brunsdon, A. S. Fotheringham, and M. Charlton (1998) describe examples of spatial analytics that were proposed during this period and that are still in use today.

Michael Goodchild (1992) synthesized these two traditions in an article that reviewed the topics worth including in a science of geographic information (known as GIScience). He identified eight topics—(1) data collection and measurement; (2) data capture; (3) spatial statistics; (4) data modeling and theories of spatial data; (5) data structures, algorithms, and processes; (6) display; (7) analytic tools; and (8) institutional, management, and ethical issues—and argued that research on these fundamental issues is a better prospect for long-term survival and acceptance in the academy than the development of technical capabilities. Twenty years later, H. Couclelis (2012) summarized Goodchild's role in the developments that defined this period in a series of sections titled "Naming," "Adapting," "Accepting," "Persevering," "Educating," and "Leading," and provided evidence that, like any other science, geographic information science, or GIScience, is a social as well as an intellectual enterprise. We perhaps should think of spatial data science, as described in chapter 5, in a similar way.

Many of the topics that Goodchild noted in his 1992 landmark article later appeared in "Geographic Information Science & Technology (GIST) Body of Knowledge" authored by D. DiBiase et al. (2006). This groundbreaking monograph used three tiers to describe the field. The first tier divides GIST into 10 knowledge areas. The second divides each knowledge area into several constituent units made up of coherent sets of topics that embody representative concepts, methodologies, techniques, and applications. The third and final tier comprises 326 topics, spread across the 10 knowledge areas and 73 units. The 10 knowledge areas—(1) analytic methods; (2) conceptual foundations; (3) cartography and visualization; (4) design aspects; (5) data modeling; (6) data manipulation; (7) geocomputation; (8) geospatial data; (9) GIST and society; and (10) organizational and institutional aspects—mimicks the priorities identified by the NCGIA nearly 20 years earlier.

Table 2.2. The 19 research initiatives sponsored by the NCGIA, from 1988 to 1997

This longstanding thread, which focuses our attention on the need to represent, measure, and manipulate information on space and time in precise and reproducible ways, remains important to this day. Hence, Jack Dangermond and Michael Goodchild (2020) recently outlined a further iteration of this thread that reflects today's focus on spatial computing coupled with open and multimodal access, sharing, engagement, the web, big data, artificial intelligence, and data science, and Goodchild (2024), in the foreword he wrote for the *Handbook of Geospatial Artificial Intelligence* (Gao et al. 2024a), describes how GeoAI provides new methods that herald a fundamental shift in the geographic sciences, one that elevates description and prediction over full explanation.

These perspectives serve as a preview for much of what follows in this and subsequent chapters and support Goodchild's (2024) observation that the most immediate need is to explore ways to incorporate nonstationarity, spatial autocorrelation, spatial heterogeneity, and scaling that shape our knowledge and understanding of the geographic domain in our use of these new methods.

The second thread, however, challenges this view of the world, and the two threads taken as a whole fit nicely within the pluralistic, complex, and multiparadigmatic vision of GIScience envisaged by T. Blaschke and H. Merschdorf (2014). This second thread starts with the spatial "turn" that has swept through the sciences, social sciences, and humanities during the past three or four decades. H. J. Scholten et al. (2009) described the explosive growth of spatial methods and their pervasive spread throughout the sciences, but it is the spatial turn in the social sciences and the humanities that perhaps offers the deeper insights in this instance.

The paradigm shift in the social sciences and the humanities has proceeded from the elemental recognition that all human action literally takes place somewhere to a view in which the spatial dimension of social interaction is of paramount importance for understanding all the classic questions about the human condition. This transformation began in the 1970s and peaked in the 1990s, instigated by such thinkers as Yi-Fu Tuan (1977), David Harvey (1989), Edward W. Soja (1989), Henri Lefebvre (1991), Edward S. Casey (1997), Michel Foucault (1998), and Doreen Massey (2005). The impact has gone furthest in the social sciences, and bookshelves now groan under the weight of recent discussions of place and space. This influence has also spread to the humanities, in which many studies now consider the spatial dimension of their research questions (Ethington 2007).

The spatial humanities are novel because the mode of analysis blends the computational and GIS-based methods noted earlier with the interpretive and qualitative methods of spatial analysis popularized by humanists. The latter includes work on the historically layered urban environment, spaces of representation, and so on, that have no need for GIS

or quantification. These methods and ways of understanding our world have applicability far beyond the traditional purview of the humanities, and as such, they provide the second thread that has contributed to the rise of the spatial sciences as a new and vibrant discipline.

D. J. Bodenhamer et al. (2013) describes how the two threads set up a clash between the rigorously precise measurements that characterize the first thread and the uncertainty and ambiguity that pervades life and place in the second thread. The latter relies on a new epistemology, one that is nonlinear, fluid, and reflexive and focuses on the use of space and time to reveal the complex and contingent context of processes and events with and across space and time (similar to Mikhail Bakhtin's [1982] chronotope). His "deep" maps, for example, recognize that people and personal experiences are central to a place's identity. Hence, they anticipate the fact that a single place may be perceived in multiple ways, all of which create different meanings and invite different methods of analysis (Gregory et al. 2019). In this sense, the map is greater than the simple display of geospatial data because it is flexible, user-centric, path traceable, open and immersive, and as such capable of portraying the "situatedness" of the storyteller (Bodenhamer et al. 2013, 2015).

This second thread, therefore, has enormous potential for understanding nearly every aspect of the human condition, including the connections between history, health, and place. Susan Kemp, for example, has written that "setting place outside of history flattens human experience, reducing it to a single plane of the present, and obscuring the deeprooted social, political, and economic mechanisms at the core of health disparities" (Kemp 2010, 16). This view also means that place histories and collective memories are particularly important to the identity and well-being of minority groups, including Indigenous people. In addition, historical patterns of social and environmental risk may significantly influence human health and well-being and mean that inequalities in health (and life generally) are often a historical phenomenon (Namin et al. 2020).

These same approaches and ideas around the meaning of place may also inform our understanding of biological pathways in health-related applications. A. K. Conching and Z. Thayer (2019), for example, have proposed a conceptual model with two pathways by which historical trauma might lead to epigenetic modifications. The first pathway captures the role of individual experience and the second the intergenerational effects. Similarly, J. Pearce (2015) has described how in utero exposures, childhood poverty, and changes in urban green space and air pollution might influence physical and mental well-being. M. Vrijheid (2014) has cast these same ideas as the accumulation of social, economic, and environmental exposures over the life course in the exposome (figure 2.1).

It is also the case that care is required when using spatial methods to characterize these kinds of relationships because geospatial information presents several unique problems,

Biological Pathways for Historical Trauma to Affect Health

Figure 2.1. The exposome concept. From M. Vrijheid (2014, 877).

such as scaling, spatial autocorrelation, spatial heterogeneity, and nonstationarity (Getis 2008; Milly et al. 2008; Goodchild 2009; Robertson and Feick 2018). Some new methods have been developed that can address these problems and find valuable insights in spatial information, as illustrated by S. D. Nyadanu et al. (2019), who provide a geovisual integration of health outcomes and risk using excess risk and conditioned choropleth maps for a case study of malaria incidence and sociodemographic determinants in Ghana. In addition, many spatial approaches endeavor to transform these so-called problems (that is, spatiotemporal properties) into assets when building statistically strong spatial models and predictions. These include kriging (Oliver 1990), thin plate splines (Hutchinson 1995), new indicators of spatial association (Anselin 2019b), spatial econometrics (Anselin 1989; Anselin and Rey 2014), geographically weighted regression (GWR) (Fotheringham et al. 2002), and spatial regression using eigenvector spatial filtering (Griffith et al. 2019), among others.

The delineation of the pathways in Conching and Thayer (2019), Pearce (2015), and Nyadanu et al. (2019) requires both of the aforementioned threads that characterize the spatial sciences today. The representation, measurement, and manipulation of spatiotemporal information using complicated computational methods (thread 1) and the nonlinear, fluid, and reflexive methods required to understand specific places (thread 2) complement one another and play a key role in our efforts to tackle nearly all the wicked problems that confront society today (Scott and Rajabifard, 2017).

These problems include climate change, freshwater shortages, and species extinctions, among others, and the increasing inequities and inequalities that characterize the human

condition and threaten human security and well-being across the world. The 67 geospatial applications featured in Esri's *ArcUser* magazine from 2021 and 2023 (table 2.3), for example, span 11 application domains—disaster management, economic development, environmental management, health applications, humanitarian operations, infrastructure management, land administration, real estate and historic preservation and housing, social equity, urban development and planning, and water management—that match or overlap with many of the focus areas of the special-interest groups listed in table 2.1.

Domains	Applications
Disaster management	Baker, T. 2023. "Students Protect the Unhoused from Wildfires." ArcUser 26 (1): 62-64.
	Baumann, J. 2022. "Understand and Mitigate Risks on a Global Scale." ArcUser 25 (2): 16-17.
	Bialousz, M. 2022. "Plant Back Better: Mapping Recovery Plans for a Climate-Resilient Forest." ArcUser 25 (1): 14-17.
	Cottry, O. 2023. "Drone Mapping and Al Combine to Find Flood Victims Faster in Mozambique." ArcUser 26 (1): 66-70.
	Lanclos, R. 2021. "Students Used GIS to Respond to the Great Flood of 2019." ArcUser 24 (3): 58-61.
	Speranza, C. 2023. "Interactive Maps Tell the Story of Modern Risk Mitigation in Florida." ArcUser 26 (3): 16-19.
	Suresh, A., and V. Viswambharan. 2022. "ML Aids Geospatial Assessment for Disaster Response." ArcUser 25 (2): 28-29.
	Wright, D. 2023. "Climate Action: Reasons for Hope." ArcUser 26 (1): 32-36.
Economic development	Cooke, K. 2023. "GIS Maps a Path to Economic Mobility." ArcUser 26 (3): 36-39.
	Bills, T. 2022. "Identifying the Solar Potential Next to America's Highways." ArcUser 25 (2): 18-20.
	Walter, C. 2022. "Cobb County Secures World Series in Real Time." ArcUser 25 (2): 66-70.
Environmental management	Anon. 2021. "Al Enables Rapid Creation of Global Land Cover Map." ArcUser 24 (3): 12-13.
	Anon. 2022. "3D Mapping Helps EPA Preserve Freshwater Resources." ArcUser 25 (4): 18-19.
	Anon. 2023. "Using GIS to Control a Big Snake Problem in the Everglades." ArcUser 26 (3): 66-70.
	Davies, R. 2021. "Helping Safeguard Threatened Raptors Worldwide." ArcUser 24 (1): 66-70.
	Dilts, T., J. Van Gunst, and J. C. Vardaro. 2021. "Mapping Pikas' Habitat to Help Save Them." ArcUser 24 (3): 24-25.
	Duggan, N. 2021. "Digitally Transforming Field Data Capture to Save Sea Turtles." ArcUser 24 (2): 66-70.
	Gadsden, D. 2023. "A Nature-Based Solution to Human-Elephant Conflict." ArcUser 26 (2): 66-70.
	Jones, M. 2022. "Mapping the Geography of Underground Ecosystems." ArcUser 25 (2): 22-25.
	Pratt, M. 2021. "To Better Understand the Earth." ArcUser 24 (3): 14-18.
	Pratt, M. 2023. "Supporting the Science that Saves the Ocean." ArcUser 26 (2): 40-47.
	Rice, J., J. Whitacre, and B. Stouffer. 2022. "Optimizing Bird Migration Tracking with ArcGIS." ArcUser 25 (4): 10-13.
Health applications	Gross, J., and D. Phelan-Emrick. 2023. "Matching COVID-19 Cases to Facilities: Lessons Learned." ArcUser 26 (3): $8 - 11.$
	Geraghty, E. 2023. "Harnessing Geospatial Data for Informed Health-Care Planning." ArcUser 26 (3): 12-13.
	Galindo, C. 2021. "Using GIS to Effect Change for the ALS Community." ArcUser 24 (4): 58-61.
	Pratt, M. 2022. "Supporting Midwives Worldwide." ArcUser 25 (3): 66-70.
	Smyth, J., and P. O'Brien. 2023. "Revealing Opioid Diversion with ArcGIS AllSource™." ArcUser 26 (3): 14-15.

Table 2.3. Geospatial domains and applications featured in *ArcUser*, from 2021 to 2023

Table 2.3. *continued*

Table 2.3. *continued*

2.2. The fusion of theory, practice, and technology

It is perhaps also not surprising considering the ways in which the intellectual focus was cast in the prior section that the spatial sciences now support large and diverse practice and technology components as well. These provide opportunities for both fundamental and applied research and teaching and support many diverse career tracks for spatial science graduates. The three elements—theory, practice, and technology—can reinforce and complement one another as long as spatial scientists and practitioners can move fluidly between the three concepts highlighted in figure 2.2.

The spatial sciences practice component has also become much larger and more formalized over time. The first *Geographic Information Science & Technology (GIST) Body of Knowledge* (DiBiase et al. 2006), for example, served as a major milestone that has helped spawn several derivative products during the past two decades. These include the US Department of Labor's Geospatial Technology Competency Model (DiBiase et al. 2010), the GIS Certification Institute's Certified Geographic Information Systems Professional (GISP) Program (GISCI 2023), the US Geospatial Intelligence Foundation's (USGIF) collegiate accreditation program (USGIF 2024), and the University Consortium for Geographic Information Science's GIST Body of Knowledge 2.0 project (Wilson 2024).

There is also a large and growing workforce: the GISCI website, for example, claimed that there were 675,000 geospatial professionals employed in the US in 2021, with 56 percent employed by some level of government and 25 percent having the title GIS analyst. In addition, the number of geospatial professionals who have earned GISP certification exceeds

information and the complementary roles of theory, practice, and technology in the spatial sciences.

10,800 spread across 59 countries, and there are now 21 colleges and universities with one or more accredited academic programs that match the knowledge and skills identified by USGIF in its Essential Body of Knowledge.

However, the value of these accreditations and certifications is difficult to judge. Mathews and Wikle (2017), for example, surveyed 1,731 geospatial professionals who became certified GISPs between 2003 and 2014 and reported that perceptions about certification span a wide spectrum, with GISPs employed in private industry seeing fewer benefits compared with those employed in government or not-for-profit organizations.

The technology component includes an increasing number and variety of vibrant proprietary and open-source platforms for acquiring, organizing, analyzing, modeling, and visualizing geospatial information.

The leading technology provider is Esri[®], whose flagship ArcGIS[®] suite provides a onestop system of record, insight, and engagement and supports work with geographic information across many disciplines and application domains around the world (figure 2.3). This suite supports 2D and 3D data collection and management, imagery and remote sensing, spatial analysis, data science, mapping and visualization in 2D and 3D, and field operations using four complementary foundation products—ArcGIS Enterprise, ArcGIS Online, ArcGIS Platform, and ArcGIS Pro—as shown in figure 2.4.